Human communities have always generated, refined and passed on knowledge from
generation to generation. Such “traditional” knowledge [sic] is often an important part of
their cultural identities. Traditional knowledge has played, and still plays, a vital role in the
daily lives of the vast majority of people. Traditional knowledge is essential to the food
security and health of millions of people in the developing world. In many countries,
traditional medicines provide the only affordable treatment available to poor people. In
developing countries, up to 80% of the population depend on traditional medicines to help
meet their healthcare needs. In addition, knowledge of the healing properties of plants has
been the source of many modern medicines.

Commission on Intellectual Property Rights

In recent years, the misappropriation of folklore, traditional knowledge, and indigenous
practices has become an increasingly important issue in global politics. In September 2000, the
World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO) established the Intergovernmental Committee
on Intellectual Property and Genetic Resources, Traditional Knowledge and Folklore, which
provides a forum for governments to discuss intellectual property matters concerning the access
to genetic resources and benefit-sharing and the protection of traditional knowledge, innovations
and creativity, and expressions of folklore. Similar issues have been raised and discussed within
the framework of the Convention on Biological Diversity and by such international
intergovernmental organizations as the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), the United
Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), the United Nations Educational,
Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), and the World Health Organization (WHO).
Most recently, in the Doha Ministerial Declaration, members of the World Trade Organization
(WTO) called for the Council for TRIPS “to examine . . . the relationship between the TRIPS
Agreement and the Convention on Biological Diversity [and] the protection of traditional
knowledge and folklore.”

Despite the limited attention it has received (until lately), the debate over the protection
of folklore, traditional knowledge, and indigenous practices impacts on a wide variety of policy
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areas, including agricultural productivity, biological diversity, cultural patrimony, food security, environmental sustainability, business ethics, global competition, human rights, international trade, public health, scientific research, sustainable development, and wealth distribution. This debate becomes even more important in light of growing dissatisfaction with the international trading system among less developed countries, the recent anti-globalization protests in Seattle, Washington, Prague, Quebec, and Genoa, and the recent breakdown of WTO talks in Cancun.

So far, governments and intergovernmental organizations have been focusing their energies, resources, and attention on understanding the issue. However, once they have acquired a deeper understanding of, and greater practical experience on, this issue, they might begin to develop international norms that seek to promote, protect, and preserve folklore, traditional knowledge, genetic resources, and indigenous practices. In light of such development, this Paper discusses four issues that are seldom addressed by commentators.

First, the outcome of the negotiation process often depends on the forum in which the parties conduct their negotiation. Indeed, the international intergovernmental body that is responsible for organizing the treaty conference—be it FAO, UNCTAD, UNESCO, WHO, WIPO, or WTO—has a strong ability to shape the terms of the treaty, including its definitions, the scope of protection, the remedies, and the enforcement mechanism. Even if we assumed all the parties and issues involved were to be identical, a treaty negotiated under the WTO regime would be very different from one sponsored by WIPO.

Thus, if governments want to extend the protection of traditional knowledge beyond the intellectual property field—and perhaps into the international trade arena—a WIPO-sponsored treaty will be highly unsatisfactory. Likewise, if governments want to create protection gradually and to limit initial protection to specific intellectual property items, negotiating the treaty in the WTO might not be ideal, as it might invite further complication of this already very difficult issue by allowing governments to link intellectual property to other trade-related items—or even to reopen discussions concerning other aspects of the WTO Agreements, including the Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPs).

As a result, policymakers have to be very careful in selecting the forum in which they conduct their negotiation. Given the diverse array of issues involved in the protection of folklore, traditional knowledge, and indigenous practices, it would be very unlikely that a single international intergovernmental organization can shape, or even dominate, the discussions. As the U.K.-based Commission on Intellectual Property Rights noted in its recent report:

It is essential that all of the agencies considering the issue work together to avoid unnecessary duplication and to ensure that the debate includes as many different views as possible. . . . We believe . . . that no single body is likely to have the capacity, expertise or resources to handle all aspects of traditional knowledge. Indeed it is our view that a multiplicity of measures, only some of them IP-related, will be necessary to protect, preserve and promote traditional knowledge.

Second, the success of the negotiation process often depends on the mindsets of the negotiators. In particular, it depends on whether the negotiators believe they are playing a zero-sum game or a nonzero-sum game. In game theory terms, a zero-sum game is a game in which a player’s gain must result in another player’s loss. By contrast, in a nonzero-sum game, a
player’s gain will not necessarily result in another player’s loss. Thus, negotiators having a zero-
sum mindset will be more likely to split the difference through accommodation and compromises,
whereas those having a nonzero-sum mindset will be more likely to create forward-looking
solutions that provide mutual benefits to all the parties involved while at the same time
preserving the hard-earned relationships among all the negotiating parties.

Third, as conflict resolution scholars and cognitive psychologists have discussed in depth,
policymakers face various psychological barriers during the negotiation process, and these
barriers can undermine their ability in making rational decisions. For example, loss aversion is
the tendency of decisionmakers to attach more weight to prospective losses than to prospective
gains of an equal value. Policymakers who succumb to loss aversion might be more receptive to
proposals that protect traditional knowledge if they focus on the potential benefits, rather than
the potential costs, of those proposals.

Another example is reactive devaluation—the tendency of parties to devalue proposals
offered by their adversaries even though they will accept identical proposals put forward by their
allies or by neutral parties. Thus, if less developed countries perceive developed countries as
their adversaries, they will tend to undervalue whatever proposals developed countries offer. By
the same token, if developed countries perceive less developed countries as their adversaries, and
consider the traditional knowledge debate an unjustified enlargement of the development agenda,
they also will undervalue whatever proposals less developed countries offer.

Finally, as many scholars and indigenous rights activists have pointed out, the negotiation
concerning the protection of traditional knowledge was significantly hampered by the lack of
participation by the indigenous community. As Professor Rosemary Coombe reminded us:

Although indigenous peoples are now recognized as key actors in this global dialogue, it will
need to be expanded to encompass a wider range of principles and priorities, which will
eventually encompass political commitments to indigenous peoples’ rights of self-
determination. Only when indigenous peoples are full partners in this dialogue, with full
juridical standing and only when the their cultural world views, customary laws, and
ecological practices are recognized as fundamental contributions to resolving local social
justice concerns will we be engaged in anything we can genuinely call a dialogue.

There is no doubt that policymakers should involve indigenous peoples in the global
dialogue. However, they should not ignore the fact that many members of the traditional
community remain reluctant to participate in the negotiation process, partly due to their concern
about further abuse, misappropriation, and exploitation of their arts and crafts and partly due to
the secretive nature of some of the indigenous creations and practices, in particular sacred
symbols and religious rituals.

In fact, policymakers have to be vigilant and constantly evaluate whether the negotiation
process contains any systematic bias or barrier that makes participation difficult. After all,
folklore, traditional knowledge, and indigenous practices were developed and passed on from
generations to generations through an oral tradition or by imitation. These materials do not fit
well into the Western worldview, the capitalist philosophy, and the contemporary notion of
individual authorship, all of which underlie the development of the current international
intellectual property regime.
In sum, the choice of forum, the mindsets of the negotiators, the extent and impact of cognitive barriers on the policymakers, and the participation of the indigenous community in the negotiation process will play major roles in determining whether governments can create a mutually beneficial solution, whether they can promote biological and cultural diversity, and whether they can establish a harmonized regime that effectively protects folklore, traditional knowledge, and indigenous practices.

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